DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 285 083 CG 020 126

AUTHOR Johnston, Janis Clark; Bernstein, Rhoda
TITLE Change the System! School Psychologist as Organizational Consultant.
PUB DATE Mar 87
NOTE 37p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association of School Psychologists (19th, New Orleans, LA, March 4-8, 1987).
PUB TYPE Viewpoints (120) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Consultants; *Consultation Programs; Counselor Role; *Elementary Secondary Education; *Organizational Change; *Organizational Development; School Counseling; *School Psychologists; Schools

ABSTRACT

Organizational development (OD) within school systems is productive work for the school psychologist. Basic to all OD is the principle of maximizing a system's resources. Following organizational change in the business world, schools can profit greatly from system changes which address today's "people problems." Outside consultants often provide the impetus for such renewal, however, an expansion of the school psychologist's role to offer organizational consultation in meeting systemic needs is both challenging and self-renewing. School psychologists may not venture into organizational change issues because schools frequently do not focus on innovation. Also school psychologists may not have been trained in consultation skills or organizational interventions. Pathfinder prowess is not rewarded in education. Organizational development can increase sharing among school staff, leading to increased energy and morale boosts. Hopefully it is only a matter of time until organizational consultation becomes an accepted part of the school psychologist's role. (Three case illustrations within a public high school are described: employee assistance program providing counseling for troubled school staff and their families, an on-site day care center, and a sexual abuse prevention program.) (Author/ABL)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED285083

CHANGE THE SYSTEM!
SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST AS ORGANIZATIONAL CONSULTANT

Abstract

Organizational development (OD) within school systems is productive work for the school psychologist. Basic to all OD is the principle of maximizing a system's resources. Following organizational change in the business world, schools can profit greatly, from system changes which address today's "people problems." Outside consultants often provide the impetus for such renewal, however, an expansion of the school psychologist's role to offer organizational consultation in meeting systemic needs is both challenging and self-renewing. Three case illustrations within a public high school are described: employee assistance program (providing counseling for troubled school staff and their families), an on-site day care center, and a sexual abuse prevention program.

CG 020126

Janis Clark Johnston, Ed.D.

Rhoda Bernstein, M.A.

Oak Park & River Forest High School

Oak Park, Illinois

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Janis Clark Johnston

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

CHANGE THE SYSTEM!

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST AS ORGANIZATIONAL CONSULTANT

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY AND ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

One definition of school psychology put forth by David Saltern, a former superintendent of the New Rochelle (Long Island, N.Y.) Schools, compares the field to that of the superintendency in that school psychology is "really a constellation of positions" (Bardon and Bennett, 1974). Just as the school administration must attend to a variety of school items, school psychology also can touch curriculum, instruction, law, and supervisory/personnel concerns, in addition to the traditional student advocate and diagnostic role. Salten's compliment of the breadth of the psychologist's role and influence is tempered by his criticism that school psychologists are only moderately self-assertive and simply, are not doing "enough." Trow (1968-69) suggested that nothing short of participation in educational reform would suffice for a school psychologist to be considered effective. Effectiveness for Kramer and Nagle (1980) was defined in terms of school psychologists becoming integrated into the total social system of the school.

One of the best ways to immerse psychologists into the total systemic workings of a school district is through involvement in organizational development. Organizational

development (OD) is the catchall title for a variety of activities which addresses the whole human side of organizational life. Adapted from business settings, OD has been used in schools over the past twenty years (Fullon, Miles, & Taylor, 1980). School organizations tend to be similar to industry in that their employees often fail to realize their individual potential. The goal of school OD is to integrate individual needs for growth with the school district's objectives to make a more effective organization. An underlying assumption of OD is that when individuals' basic needs are met, they are better able to produce the highest quality of work.

Organizational development in schools began as an offshoot of the T-group experiences sponsored by the National Training Laboratories (Miles and Schmuck, 1971). The Seattle Schools were the first schools to use T-groups during the mid 1950's. In the early 1960's the first systematic OD efforts in schools were initiated by Miles in New York and Pittsburg.

Most OD programs in education have involved elementary schools (Fullon, Miles, & Taylor, 1980). Bassin and Gross (1980) work in New York inner city schools represents a major OD effort for high schools. Their intervention is the longest (1969-79), largest, and possible one of the most successful models of OD utilized in schools. Their self-renewal project began as a partnership between the New

York City Board of Education and "on-loan" business executives. Renewal models encouraged each school to decide on the level of change desired (school-wide, student, departmental, or administrative).

As is characteristic of the above OD self-renewal, schools usually rely on outside consultants to give advice on systemic projects. Following Schmuck, Renkel, Saturen, Martell, and Dear (1972) some form of organizational training from outside the organization usually was necessary to clarify desirable goals for systemic change in schools. Yet many school psychologists are capable of providing the type of consultation their workplace requires with a major monetary savings to their school district.

One of the problems with much OD is that the outside OD researcher/consultant typically is representing needs of administrators (Fullon, Miles, & Taylor, 1980). The value of school psychologists working on OD issues is that they can meet the needs of everyone in the organization. Rather than function as many "re-stabilizing agents" (Forbes, 1977), the school psycholgist can be a change agent who looks within the system and initiates renewal wherever a need exists.

School Psychology Renewal

One of the most important needs in terms of establishing OD priorities is for the school psychologist to

move away from the reputation of having only a crisis/ assessment mentality. This is admittedly difficult, as the very role of psychology in the schools is linked with handling the crisis of the moment (whether student and/or staff are in crisis). Yet, the psychologist has a unique position in education because she interfaces with many subsystems of the school on a daily basis. The description of organizational development in schools contains many of the same task descriptions of the psychologist's ongoing work. Fullon, Miles, & Taylor (1980) outline school OD as being a "concrete, systemically-planned, sustained effort...focusing explicitly on changes in formal and informal procedures (with)...the goals of OD including improving both the quality of life of individuals as well as organizational functioning and performances with a direct or indirect focus on educational issues" (p. 135). School psychologists' focus on home and school systems within the classroom (Johnston and Fields, 1981) is only a step away from looking at the larger systemic issues of an entire school family.

The initial requirements for an effective school psychologist are the same ones needed for effective OD consulting: trust, rapport, legitimacy, credibility, and dependability (Schmuck, Runkel, Arends, & Arends, 1977). These traits are especially crucial in light of Jason's (1982) view that school psychologists' OD consultation may

challenge traditional functions and missions of the school system.

> Preventive school practitioners & theorists have a unique role to play in juxtaposing current missions with future priorities, sensitsizing school personnel and commumity members to unexplored potentials within school settings, and serving as agents of change by incorporating innovations within existing practices & behavioral regularities (Jason, 1982, p. 423).

Probably the most important determinant in initiating some successful OD intervention in a school is the social-psychological readiness of the school. Readiness is defined as meeting several criteria: (a) openness of communication is valued, (b) communication skill is high, (c) desire exists for collaborative work, (d) administration is supportive, or at least not negative, (e) agreement exists at the outset about major educational goals, and (f) staff lack of history of believing "innovations" fail to meet positive outcomes (Runkel & Schmuck, 1976).

The range of OD activities for the school psychologist is quite broad. Alderfer (1977) cites fives different approaches which relate equally well to schools and industry: (a) team building, (b) survey feedback, (c) structural approaches, (d) environmental interfaces (working across organizational boundaries), and (e) cognitive

development of individuals within the organization. One of the most powerful benefits of any OD activity, particularly in schools, may well be the broadening of staff collaboration across departmental boundaries. Miles and Schmuck (1971) refer to this as "cousin" training, in that persons from different departmental families are drawn together.

BUSINESS AS A MODEL FOR CHANGE IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Most educators and specialists who work within schools do not view their workplaces as businesses, but rather as educational institutions set apart from the more "base" pursuits of big business. However, Webster's New Twentieth Century Dictionary defines business as "any particular occupation or employment habitually engaged in, especially for livelihood or gain." School systems have all of the essential attributes of a business--employees, budgets, and products. Oak Park & River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois, has over five hundred employees, an annual budget in excess of twenty-five million dollars and "finished products" released every June in the form of 800 graduating seniors.

In recent years our society has changed, and the nature of business has changed. Changes in business have not corresponded exactly to societal changes but have moved quickly in recent years to catch up with this societal evolution. However, the business aspect of schools has been

very slow to incorporate the elements of societal-business reform since the U.S. moved from an agrarian to an industrial based society. One significant school reform following industry's lead was to utilize principals as plant foremen were utilized - telling rank and file employees how to function (Griffin, 1986).

Curriculum development has been the exception to schools' overall lack of responsiveness to change, as programs of study generally reflect societal values and attitudes. During the 1960's when meaningful and individualized life experiences were highly valued, we had special education introduced into our schools and courses such as Parenting and Life Skills were added. Now in the 1980's, when academic skills and personal responsibilitiy are being valued, our curricula reflect this with minimal competency graduation exams, an increasing number of skills-related courses, and stiffer graduation requirements.

What has generally remained stagnant in our schools is the nature of being employed in schools. The work environment in educational institutions has not changed appreciably compared to reforms in business. As Samuel Bacharach, a Cornell University professor and director of the 1984 Rand Corporation educational survey, states, "... education will not be improved...if you don't improve the workplace" (Griffin, 1986).

A Philosophical Basis for Change

To model school change after current major business changes, the Japanese philosophy often referred to as the Z theory of management is a good starting point. Simply stated, this theory is based on a "people" orientation; "...it is simply human...(relying on) loyalty, commitment through effective training, personal identification with the company's process, and the human relationship between the employee and his supervisors" (Pascale & Athos, 1981). Keeping this philosophy in mind, we will review four general categories of change recently occurring within the business world which have implications for change in school systems: (a) a change in the perception of the workplace, (b) an increased demand for quality of products, (c) a change in the utilization of personnel, and (d) a change in the personality of business (Peters & Waterman, 1982).

A change in perception of the workplace is needed to reconceptualize what employees do and how they do it. One component of this change in vision is a shift from short term thinking and goals to long term thinking and goals. This moves the emphasis away from annual profit (or how many graduate each year) onto the process of how goals and profit are accomplished (or the extent and quality of skills they have acquired.) Another aspect of this change issue is a clear bias for action. This means act, do, go, decide, rather than create too many committees which ultimately only produce more rhetoric. Yet another aspect of this change in

perception is a re-evaluation of the importance of the place of emmployment. In the U.S. people traditionally have viewed work as that which must be tolerated to make a living. The Japanese have showed us that work can become a gratifying central focus in one's life and not at the expense of family or personal pursuits (Ouchi, 1984).

Likewide, the Japanese have shown U.S. business that the second area of change, the demand for quality products, is possible. Profit and quality are not mutually exclusive. Sony creates an excellent product and shows large annual profits. The same could be expected in education - we need to be able to graduate large numbers of students who are skilled and competent. Consumerism and watchdog groups have helped facilitate quality production in business. The educational analog to business consumerism is greater parent and youth involvement with the decision-making process of school systems.

The third major component of change faced in the business world, facilitating productivity through people, also has implications for education. In the business world there has been a growing respect for employees (Pascale & Athos, 1981). This change affects corporate attitude as well as corporate behavior. Progressive businesses no longer view their employees as interchangeable parts which need to be dispersed with when they change in their immediate productivity. Employees now retrain, counsel, and

guide their employees to help remediate lagging productivity. Employee benefits increasingly are more "humanized" in terms of corporate health clubs, on site child care centers, and corporate cafeterias which are designed to serve all strata within an organization equally. Treating teachers with such consideration and professionalism would attract more highly qualified individuals into the field (Griffin, 1986).

The final business trend with implications for education is the changing personality of business. Until recently, U.S. business and influence has been exclusively top-down. Now there is a move toward bottom-up power. A decrease in the number of executives, de-centralization of power, and the development of internal "quality circles" (a group of employees whose purpose is to share with management the responsibility for locating and solving problems) have led to this aspect of business reform (Marks, 1986; Ouchi, 1981).

An even more diffuse personality change has taken place in business. The feel or climate of many businesses has shifted. Organizations can be classified in Type A or Type B personalities similar to individuals (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1982). A Type A company is active and authoritarian, with its priority placed upon immediate results. A Type B company is characterized as moderately paced and democratic with greater emphasis on long-term

accomplishments. Research has shown that both types can be equally profitable with Type B companies having healthier and more satisfied employees (Matteson & Ivanevich, 1982). Traditionally, U.S. companies and schools have had Type A personality styles. This stems from the belief that this is the best way to obtain profits (educational results) and also reflects individuals' personal moral fiber. The model of Japanese business has shown that Type A intensity is not the only way to run a successsful work place. Educational professionals clearly would benefit from these modifications. Students invariable benefit when educators benefit.

School psychologists at Oak Park & River Forest High School in Oak Park, Illinois, have been involved in school-wide organizational change largely patterned after these developments of Japanese theory and its corresponding development in American business. Three case illustrations of organizational development within a public high school are offered as examples of expanding school psychologists' roles: (1) an employee assistance program reflects business change in the growing respect for employees and their utilization, (2) a child care center is based upon the business changes in the perception of workplace and the increased in demand for quality products, and (3) a sex abuse prevention program is related to the changing personality of business where rank and file employees share

with administrator the responsibility for noting problems and finding solutions.

EMPLOYEE ASSISTANCE PROGRAM

An employee assistance program (EAP) is an added benefit to staff and their immediate family members. The concept was initiated in the 1920's by Macy's Department Store and traditionally provided an alcoholism treatment program. Employee assistance focused on alcoholism at the same time Alcoholism Anonymous was emerging in the 1930's (Good, 1986). Now it has evolved into a broad brush service addressing many human problems (Wrich, 1980). EAP's help employees (and/or family members) with marital and family problems, emotional/psychological concerns, stress related issues, as well as with alcohol/chemical dependency. The service can offer consultation to supervisors and administrators on job performance evaluations. Some of the newest features of EAP's are seminars and support groups within the work place. Physical fitness programs emphasizing "wellness" for the work force have been evolving in the U.S. Japan not only has the most advanced employee fitness programs, but also is first in life expectancy and work productivity (Cunningham, 1982).

A rule of thumb statistic is that 10% of the nation's populaton is suffering from some type of mental/personality disorder that requires treatment; however, only 10-20% of these individuals receive mental health services (Follmann,

1978). While the alcoholic worker has been identified as one whose problems are evident in absenteeism and tardiness (Berry & Boland, 1975), there are many troubled employees who use their "sick" days as a stress reduction method. The troubled staff in schools may have lowered productivity which cannot be measured in the external ways of business. Although it is not the function of the school to resolve their faculty's personal problems for them, an increased awareness and the availability of appropriate outside resources can assist troubled school staff in helping themselves. In turn, the EAP enables the employee to become more effective on the job. In providing an employee assistance program, the school is sending a strong message to its employees that they are special people who are valued and critical to the educational process.

Oak Park-River Forest High School's EAP was initiated by the first author through membership on a system-wide staff development committee. The psychologist raised the topic of effective EAP interventions in industry and wondered if such a benefit could be established for teachers and staff. Other committee members voiced their ideas for staff development and several sub-committees were initiated, one being an EAP study. With the school psychologist chairing the EAP sub-committee, the process of creating an EAP was begun.

Telephone interview calls were made to seven school districts in the Chicago area with EAP expertise. Most of these schools were in the early stages of their own programs, but nonetheless, gave valuable input about their evolution in starting an EAP for their teachers and staff. With strong support from the larger Staff Development Committee upon hearing of other schools' enthusiastic comments, the sub-committee devised a needs assessment questionnaire for faculty/staff. The school psychologist spoke to all faculty and staff on Institute Day to describe the EAP concept and present the needs assessment questionnaire. Staff Development Committee members handed out the questionnaire in departmental meetings later in the day. By collecting the questionnaires immediately, a high return rate was assured. Faculty and staff results were highly in favor of an EAP: 76% of faculty, 83% of the buildings and grounds staff, and 93% of the classified personnel (secretaries and instructional aides) wanted the program. In addition to short term counseling interest, many personnel indicated a need for such self improvement seminars as an exercise program, wellness/stress management workshops, relaxation training, a weight reduction class, assertiveness training, coping with aging parents workshop, parenting workshop, stop smoking clinic, and alcoholism/drug dependency workshop.

The school psychologist was invited to a school board meeting to share the sub-committee's study of area EAP's in schools and the staff needs assessment. With a "Yes, but what will it really cost?" caution, the school board gave its blessing to pursue meeting with EAP providers to gather definitive information. The EAP subcommittee was enlarged to include representatives from all areas of work: the psychologist and two teacher members were now joined by the Associate Principal for Instruction, a Building and Grounds supervisor, and the president elect of the classified personnel. This broad based committee reflects Miles and Schmuck's (1971) concept of "cousin" collaboration in that people from different departmental families join together for a common cause.

The committee met three EAP service providers, using an agency interview check list to compare and contrast programs. After selecting a well established EAP counseling service, a final school board presentation was made. The $15.00 per employee per year cost was accepted by the school board. During the summer the EAP sub-committee met with the service provider personnel to detail a brochure describing the program. Training sessions for program initiation were held for department heads and supervisory staff. At the beginning Institute Day of the school year all employees were notified of the program start-up date.

In the first year of utilization, all the individuals who saw the EAP counselor were self-referrals. Of those people using the program 91% of them were employees (as opposed to family members of employees) and 79% were faculty (as opposed to secretarial or custodial staff). The referral problems were as follows: emotional/mental health - 36%; stress - 18%; marital relationships - 18%; family relationships - 9%; other relationships - 9% and eating disorders - 9%. In addition to individual counseling and/or referrals for additional mental health services, the EAP assisted the school Wellness Day Committee (in planning a special institute day), provided a seminar on aging, and offered a lunchtime workshop on stress management. Staff interest in an on-going exercise program before and after work hours developed into an aerobics program that met several times a week.

CHILD CARE CENTER

A second OD effort, still being developed, is the creation of a faculty child care center. The initiation of this systems change differs from the EAP development in that no offical committee membership was necessary for the kick-off stages. The second author talked with an administratior and the first author about the concept. After these three individuals met, a telephone survey of existing programs in colleges and high schools in the area was conducted by the two school psychologists. With

favorable input and much enthusiasm on the part of people who managed these joint faculty child centers, other staff were added to establish a new committee. A home economics teacher in charge of child development coursework and the Coordinatior of Career Education joined the team. A needs assessment survey of faculty and staff interest for such a program, based on the work of a child care project sponsored by the Wellesley College Center for Research on Women (Baden, Genser, Levine, & Seligson, 1982), was distributed. While most of the personnel did not have pre-schoolers, an enthusiastic response was received from thirty-one members of the faculty and staff. With twelve-fifteen possible candidates for the day care project, the initial committe now had a realistic impetus to proceed with planning.

A more systemic focus was needed to carry out the project. The Child Care Committee now became "official" with two school psychologists co-chairing, the Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds, director of the classified personnel (secretaries and aides), Coordinator of Career education, a dean (guidance counselor), chairperson of the Home Economics Department, and four classroom teachers. While this may seem like an enormous group to facilitate change, it has been found that the greater the number of people involved in an organizational change program, the greater will be their interactions and

interdependencies with others (Maher & Illbach, 1983). Systems change requires only an initial outgrowth of a few people, but very quickly can build as more individuals become involved. Sub committee work was outlined in the initial meeting of the expanded group. The sub-committees were (a) space allocation, (b) curriculum/policy, and (c) funding. Sub-committee work preceeded independently on the entire committee and then recommended to the entire committee for feedback of their progress. The committee as a whole dealt with fulfilling the requirements of Illinois Department of Children and Family Services (D.C.F.S.), which is the organization mandated by the state of Illinois to license and oversee day care facilities.

The main task of the space allocation sub-committee was to locate a viable and appropriate site for the child care center. Out-of-school options (such as purchasing a house near the school or use of a church adjacent to the high school) were ruled out because of lack of availability or exorbitant costs. An in-school location has the advantage of being highly convenient for the employee parents. This sub-committee directly explored all site options, keeping in mind the needs of young children (i.e., sunlight, ample space), the requirements of D.C.F.S. (i.e., ground floor, close proximity to exits), and the needs of the school system (i.e., not to disrupt the education of high school students).

A small student cafeteria was decided upon as the site for the day care center. This area could meet all D.C.F.S. requirements, was able to provide for the developmental needs of children, and its use as a child care site proved to be an advantage to the school system. With declining high school enrollment this small cafeteria eventually might have become "dead space" within the school building. Having all student food service take place within the one large cafeteria made this operation easier and less costly for the district. Administration and school board approval were necessary to confirm this sub-committee decision.

The curriculum/policy sub committee was assigned a two-fold task: (a) to plan the child care program: and (b) to develop the curriculum of a new advanced level Home Economics course instructing students who would become student/caretakers within the child care center. This sub-committee used a collective reasoning and "brainstorming" approach to decide upon such factors as operative hours, fees, establishing a criteria for center eligibility (should the demand for the center exceed the number of available spaces), establishing a governing board, paraprofessional personnel selection, and deciding upon the purchase of appropriate child care materials and equipment.

It was decided during the early planning stage that the center would be staffed by a director (a high school child care course instructor), two or three para-professionals

(contingent upon center enrollment), and H.E.R.O. (Home Economics Related Occupations) students who would work in the center for half-days and attend classes the other half day. This student employment would be funded through an already existing H.E.R.O. grant to the high school. This involvement could augment the students' high school education by providing them with experiential vocational training.

The task of the funding sub-committee was to locate and secure the financial resources necessary to develop and run the child care center for its initial three year operating period. This was to be done without incurring additional costs to the school district. It was estimated that the total three year operating cost for the center would be $210,000. This included site remodeling costs, para-professional salaries, and the purchase of all necessary supplies. The school district would continue to pay the salary of the center director as she would be maintaining her position as a faculty member. The total income to the center, through tuition and a one time parent application fee was estimated to be $123,000 for this three year period. The difference of $87,000 will be funded by grant endowment. At the time of this writing, grant funding as yet to be securred, but several foundations are highly favorable and encouraging.

Work yet to be completed, prior to the center opening, is the hiring of paraprofessionals, purchase of materials, site remodeling, curriculum development for the high school course to be taken by students and H.E.R.O. employees, and completion of the offical application to D.C.F.S. A great deal of work has gone into this project, but it is felt by all involved individuals that such a program will be an asset to the school district, high school students, employee parents, employee children, and the community.

SEXUAL ABUSE: FOCUS ON EDUCATION (S.A.F.E.)

In January, 1985, fifteen leading child-abuse experts from the United States and Canada gathered in Racine, Wisconsin, to explore the issue of persuading potential sexual abusers to seek help on their own before being reported by their victims. The conference, sponsored by the Chicago-based National Committee for Prevention of Child Abuse, marked the first major effort to address prevention of sexual child abuse at the root of the problem. No one knows the real statistics on child molestation due to few victims reporting their attackers and the unreliable reporting practices among police departments and social agencies. Smith (1984) contends that current statistics underestimate the actual problem. However, experts believe that adolescents are responsible for as many as half of all sex offenses committed against American youth. There has been a 200 percent increase in reported cases of sexual

abuse since 1976 (Kempe & Kempe, 1984). A Department of Child and Family Services supervisor states that in the Chicago area there has been a 200 percent increase in sexual abuse reports since January, 1984, when a movie about child sex abuse was shown on television.

Sex education programs in high schools have not included sexual abuse in their curricula (Pickover, Barbrack, & Glot, 1982). Until quite recently, no one wanted to believe that sexual abuse was a serious concern for very many students. Finkelhor's (1979) research challenges this perception: nearly one in five girls and one in eleven boys were found to have had a sexual experience as a child with a much older person. Demographic data indicates that any social class and ethnic background can be found among victims. Boys' experiences are predominently homosexual and are less likely to involve family members. For girls, almost half of their abusers are family members. With these sobering statistics, schools can no longer avoid the topic of sexual abuse. Finkelhor (1979) cites such social issues as family disorganization, commercial exploitation of sexuality, and sexual inequality as possible culprits in sexual abuse. While schools cannot take it upon themselves to "change" society, their role to educate can be of utmost help in these critical times. The school learning environment is already affected; Oates, Peacock, and Forest (1984) report that abused children show delayed language

development, delayed reading ability, and classroom behavioral concerns.

Typically, school psychologists focus on tertiary prevention which Caplan (1964) defined as one's attempts to reduce the long-term effects of mental disorders. Psychologists also focus considerable energy on secondary prevention (early treatment of problems). Primary prevention or preventing dysfunction before it occurs, receives almost no attention by school psychologists (Alpert, 1985). Few agencies are responsible for providing a primary prevention effort and the school is a prime resource for physical and psychological accessibility to children and their families.

Project S.A.F.E got its start when the authors heard a presentation on the topic of sexual abuse. The talk was sponsored by West Surburban School Psychologists, the local group of Illinois School Psychologis Association. The information on the sharp rise in reported sexual abuse was so staggering that the authors felt compelled to do something about educating and helping students deal with abuse issues. A school social worker was invited to join the planning team as she was a source of many teenage referrals in the building.

The taboo of sexual abuse must be addressed openly through a well publicized community based program (Kempe & Kempe, 1984). The efforts of the two school psychologists

and school social worker emphasized this community base of support by visiting the Department of Children and Family Services, and many abuse treatment facilities in the Chicago area. Area therapists with specialized training in the area of abuse were interviewed in anticipation of referrals later. In addition, the planning team attended a two day workshop on sexual abuse.

The S.A.F.E. Project has a two pronged effort: an educative/intervention effort to present the facts of sexual abuse (and its treatment) and a preventive effort in terms of future abusers. Specific goals of the project are (a) to educate students on the high incidence of abuse among children and adolescents, (b) to describe the victims becoming victimizers theory, (c) to address legal aspects of reporting abuse, (d) to present treatment alternatives for sexually abused youth and their abusers, and (e) to prevent sexual abuse. While it is hoped that any abused students will release their secret to someone on the psychology/ social work team and thus, get referred for appropriate treatment, the most potent aspect of this project is the prevention focus.

Prevention for young children involves recognizing dangerous situations and teaching them how to say "no" to strangers (or known adults) who may try to touch them with a "Red Flag" touch (Williams, 1980). For adolescents, prevention needs to encompass a broader range of topics,

including dating and rape. Girls need to hear that men will try to shift the responsibility for rapist behavior to the victim (Reynolds, 1984). Females need to learn assertive behaviors for dating situations to be able to avoid date rape. Also, they need to be aware that sexualized adult-youngster relationships contribute to a negative orientation toward their future relationships with men and quite likely, with people in general (LaBarbera, 1984). For guys, the prevention message is an emphasis for the potential abuser that such behavior is damaging and wrong (Finkelhor, 1979).

There are three stages to the S.A.F.E. Project: (a) information, (b) referral, and (c) follow-up. The information portion of the program featured four experts in the field of sexual abuse who spoke to groups of high school students during their P.E. class time. Students were released from classes to attend the presentation. Every student was involved in this portion of the program. It was made clear that students could self-refer themselves to anyone on the school mental team for intervention referrals. In the follow-up phase, the school psychologists and school social worker met with students in their home room periods the following day and asked them to fill out a brief evaluation.

A random sample of students completed a questionnaire. Of 111 questionnaire returns, there was an overwhelmingly positive response about the information received. One of

the major points made during the presentation was to "tell someone if you are a victim of sexual abuse." Apparently, this message was received, as 74% of the student respondents reported that they would talk with someone (another 16% "maybe" would tell someone). In reporting who they would tell, parents were the most frequently listed (38%), with a best friend given as the second preference (28%). School personnel were next in importance; deans or guidance counselors - 16%; school psychologist or social worker - 15%; and teachers - 14%. Siblings, police, adult friends, hotline counselors and church leaders each were listed by 3% of the sample as people who would be told about abuse.

DISCUSSION

Perhaps one reason more psychologists do not venture into organizational change issues is that schools, unlike industry, frequently do not focus on innovation. It is possible that school psychologists get into the field knowing this is the climate of schools and they feel "safe" in such an arena of tradition. Oakland (1986) suggests that the practices of school psychologists appear most akin to those of clinical and counseling psychologists and most dissimilar to industrial/organizational psychologists. Another possible factor is that many school psychologists legitimately have not been trained in consultation skills or organizational interventions. Also, the factor of rewarding pathfinding prowess is missing in education. "Unlike

business or industry, there is virtually no profit motive for being an innovator in American public education" (Owen, 1970, p. 146).

Derr (1976) actually concluded that OD may not "work" in schools because of such issues as the schools' ability to guarantee survival of staff (through tenure), benefit students without an emphasis on staff collaboration, and inbreed, particularly in administrration posts. While these factors may stifle change in some educational systems, there is plenty of room for innovation and the range of OD activities is broad.

Even more compelling is the idea that the significant changes in schools have been initiated by outside consultants. While it would be to a given school's advantage if awareness of educational needs and new ways of meeting these needs would come from within the system, there is little evidence currently to suggest that this is the case (Owen, 1970). While most school OD projects have been initiated by researchers who invited school districts to collaborate with them, most industrial OD programs were initiated from within as their workers perceived a need. Using business as a model for change, school psychologists can take the initiative within their school disstricts to see where OD projects may prove useful.

The motivation for a school psychologist to take on extra work and be an organizational consultant comes from

several sources. One's job is an important aspect of one's self-esteem and identity. While many psychologists complain about narrow job descriptions, it is their responsibility to assess their work environment to find ways of being effective. Keeping abreast of new developments in the "people business" and applying them to daily programs on the job keeps one feeling vital and challenged. Another side attraction is the need for the school psychologist to feel capable of creating change. In many counseling/evaluation situations, it can be discouraging to see so little behavior change take place after many hours of professional input. To produce innovative projects and work with a variety of staff in new ways is uplifting and change focused. Miles and Schmuck (1971) view OD interventions as increasing sharing among school staff which leads to increased energy, morale boasts, and makes the school a more exciting workplace.

SUMMARY

Credit for these organizational change programs must be shared with a viable reliable administration willing to take risks. The readiness climate at Oak Park and River Forest High School was ripe for the initiation of new ideas and staff renewal. A staff development committee was formed in 1984 and became one of the working priorities of the School Board. Staff renewal within the school is desired by the current administration.

While the system must be flexible enough to consider change, impetus initially must come from the psychologist (Carner, 1982). Slowly, school psychology is moving away from the narrowly defined psychodiagnostic role. Smith and Lyon's (1985) research shows that both the amount of time devoted to consultation and the amount of time desired for consultation have increased significantly for school psychologists. It is hoped by the authors that it is only a matter of time until organizational consultation becomes an accepted part of the school psychologist's role as well.

REFERENCES

Alderfer, C. P. (1977). Organization development. Annual Review of Psychology, 28, 197-223.

Alpert, J. (1985). Change within a profession: Change, future, prevention, and school psychology. American Psychologist, 40, 1112-1121.

Baden, R. K., Genser, A., Levine, J. A., & Seligson, M. (1982). School-age child care: An action manual. Boston, Massachusetts: Auburn House Publishing Company.

Bardon, J. I. & Bennett, V. C. (1974). School psychology. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Bassin, M. & Gross, T. (1980). Turning on big city schools: Pragmatic, participatory problem-solving. In Milstein, M. M. (Ed.). Schools, conflict, and change. Columbia University, New York: Teachers College Press.

Berry, R. E., Jr. & Boland, J. P. (1977). The work-related costs of alcohol abuse. In Schramm, C. J. (Ed.), Alcoholism and its treatment in industry. Baltimore, Maryland: John Hopkins University Press.

Caplan, G. (1964). Principles of preventive psychiatry. New York: Basic Books.

Carner, L. A. (1982). Developing a consultative contract. In Alpert, J. L. (Ed.), Psychological consultation in educational settings. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cunningham, R. M., Jr. (1982). Wellness at work: A report on health and fitness programs for employees of business and industry. Chicago: Blue Cross Association.

Derr, C. B. (1976). O. D. won't work in schools. Education and urban society, 227-241.

Finkelhor, D. (1979). Sexually victimized children. New York: The Free Press.

Follmann, J. F., Jr. (1978). Helping the troubled employee. New York: American Management Associations.

Forbes, R. L., Jr. (1977). Organizational development: form or substance? OD Practitioner, 12-13.

Fullan, M., Miles, M. B., & Taylor, G. (1980). Organization development in schools: The state of the art. Review of Educational Research, 50, 121-183.

Good, R. K. (1986). Employee assistance: A critique of three corporate drug abuse policies. Personnel Journal, 65, 96-101.

Griffin, J. L. (1986, July 13). Perspective. Chicago Tribune, p. 1.

Jason, L. A. (1982). Community-based approaches in preventing adolescent problems. School Psychology Review, 11, 417-424.

Johnston, J. C. & Fields, P. A. (1981). School consultation with the "classroom family." The School Counselor, 29, 140-146.

Kempe, R. S. & Kempe, C. H. (1984). The common secret: Sexual abuse of children and adolescents. New York: W. H. Freeman & Company.

Kramer, J. J. & Nagle, R. J. (1980). Suggestions for the delivery of psychological services in secondary schools. Psychology in the schools, 17, 53-59.

LaBarbera, J. D. (1984). Seductive father-daughter relationships and sex roles in women. Sex Roles, 11, 941-951.

Marks, M. L. (1986). The question of quality circles. Psychology Today, 20, 36-46.

Maher, C. A. & Illback, R. J. (1982). Considerations for education and training in organizational school psychology. Psychology in the Schools, 19, 194-199.

Maher, C. A. & Illback, R. J. (1983). Planning for organizational change in schools: Alternative approaches and procedures. School Psychology Review, 12, 460-466.

Matteson, M. T. & Ivancevich, J. M. (1982). Managing job stress and health. New York: The Free Press.

Miles, M. B. & Schmuck, R. A. (1971). Improving schools through organizational development: An overview. In Schmuck, R. A. & Miles, M. B. (Eds.), Organization development in schools. LaJolla, California: University Associates.

Oakland, T. D. (1986). Professionalism within school psychology. Professional School Psychology, 1, 9-27.

Oates, R. K., Peacock, A., & Forrest, D. (1984). The development of abused children. Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology. 26, 649-656.

Ouchi, W. G. (1981). Theory Z: How American business can meet the Japanese challenge. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Owens, R. G. (1970). Organizational behavior in schools. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Pascale, R. T., & Athos, A. G. (1981). The art of Japanese management. New York: Warner Books.

Peters, T. J., & Watermann, R. H., Jr. (1982). In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies. New York: Harper and Row.

Pickover, B., Barbrack, C., & Glat, M. (1982). Preventive and educative programs within the high school. School Psychology Review, 11, 399-408.

Reynolds, L. (1984). Rape: A social perspective. Journal of Offender Counseling, Services & Rehabilitation, 9, 149-160.

Rinkel, P. J. & Schmuck, R. A. (1976). Organization development in schools: A review of research findings from Oregon. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregan.

Schmuck, R. A., Runkel, P. J., Arends, J. H., & Arends, R. I. (1977). The second handbook of

organization development in schools. Palo Alto, California: Mayfield Publishing.

Schmuck, R. A., Runkel, P. J., Saturen, S. L., Martell, R. T. & Derr, C. B. (1972). Handbook of organization development in schools. Palo Alto, California: Mayfield Publishing.

Smith, D. K. & Lyon, M. A. (1985). Consultation in school psychology: Changes from 1981 to 1984. Psychology in the Schools, 22, 404-409.

Smith, S. M. (1984). Child abuse: A medico-legal issue. Psychiatric Medicine, 2, 223-233.

Trow, W. C. (1968-69). What should be expected of psychologists in educational reform? Journal of School Psychology, 7, 64-69.

Williams, J. (1980). Red flag green flag people. Fargo, North Dakota: Rape and Abuse Crisis Center.

Williamson, J. N. (1974). The inquiring school: Toward a model of organizational self-renewal. The Educational Forum, 38, 404-409.

Wrich, J. T. (1980). The employee assistance program, updated for the 1980's. Center City, Minnesota: Hazelden.